



## Encapsulation of $\text{SnO}_2$ nanoparticles into hollow $\text{TiO}_2$ nanowires as high performance anode materials for lithium ion batteries

Qinghua Tian <sup>a</sup>, Zhengxi Zhang <sup>a,\*</sup>, Li Yang <sup>a,\*</sup>, Shin-ichi Hirano <sup>b</sup>

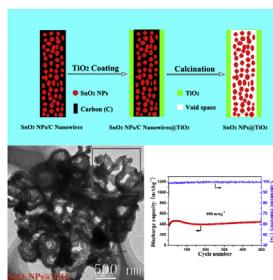
<sup>a</sup> School of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Shanghai 200240, PR China

<sup>b</sup> Hirano Institute for Materials Innovation, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Shanghai 200240, PR China

### HIGHLIGHTS

- We fabricated a new morphological nanostructure of composite: encapsulation of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles into hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires.
- The composite realized the integration of the high capacity  $\text{SnO}_2$  and structural stability  $\text{TiO}_2$ .
- This nanostructure made the composite to have sufficient physical buffer ability.
- The composite exhibited good lithium storage performance and excellent cyclability.

### GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



### ARTICLE INFO

#### Article history:

Received 17 November 2013

Received in revised form

8 December 2013

Accepted 10 December 2013

Available online 18 December 2013

#### Keywords:

Tin dioxide

Titanium dioxide

Hollow nanowires

Anode materials

Lithium ion batteries

### ABSTRACT

In this work, a new nanostructure of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles (NPs) encapsulated into hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires ( $\text{SnO}_2@ \text{TiO}_2$ ) has been successfully fabricated. This unique architecture intrinsically possess void space in between the  $\text{TiO}_2$  shell and  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticle cores, as confirmed by XRD, XPS, SEM, TEM and HRTEM characterizations. The  $\text{TiO}_2$  shell of the composite can not only alleviate the pulverization and drastic volume change of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs and maintain the structural integrity, but also contribute to the total capacity of the composite. Moreover, the void space can also accommodate the volume expansion of  $\text{SnO}_2$  and provide highly efficient channels for the fast transport of both electrons and lithium ion during discharge/charge cycling process. When tested as potential anode materials for lithium ion batteries, the as-prepared hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires shell encapsulating  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs architecture exhibits good lithium storage performance and excellent cyclability (which delivers a higher reversible capacity of  $445 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  at  $800 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  after 500 cycles). The unique architecture should be responsible for the superior electrochemical performance.

© 2013 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

### 1. Introduction

Currently, lithium ion batteries (LIBs) predominantly use graphite as anode materials, which cannot meet the increasing demand for powering electric vehicles (EVs) or hybrid electric

vehicles (HEVs) energy storage requirements due to the low theoretical capacity of around  $372 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  [1,2]. Therefore, it is highly desirable to develop alternative anode materials to meet the need for next-generation LIBs.

As the most promising candidates for anode materials, transition metal oxides with high capacities from 700 to  $1000 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  have been widely investigated to replace the commercial graphite anode for LIBs in the past decade [3,4]. Among them, Tin dioxide ( $\text{SnO}_2$ ) is one of the most-studied anode materials because of its

\* Corresponding authors. Tel.: +86 21 54748917; fax: +86 21 54741297.

E-mail address: [liyangce@sjtu.edu.cn](mailto:liyangce@sjtu.edu.cn) (L. Yang).



high theoretical capacity, safe working potential and environmental benignity [5,6]. Despite the high theoretical capacity, however, the practical use of the  $\text{SnO}_2$ -based anode materials is greatly hampered by their quick capacity fading upon an extended number of cycles, which is believed to be caused by the huge volume change of  $\text{SnO}_2$  during discharge/charge process [7]. Meanwhile, the electron conductivity of  $\text{SnO}_2$  is poor. To mitigate these problems, several strategies have been proposed and improved the lithium storage performance. For example, one of the well-known methods is to design various  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanostructures with large surface area and high surface-to-volume ratio, such as nanotubes [8], nanoboxes [9], nanosheets [10] and/or porous nanostructures; other widely practiced strategy is to improve the conductivity of  $\text{SnO}_2$ -based materials by combining them with electronically conductive agents, such as CNTs, graphene and noble metals [11–15]. Unfortunately,  $\text{SnO}_2$  and/or  $\text{SnO}_2$ -based composites with considerable capacity fading still exist upon cycling in both strategies. Because these  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanostructures are inclined to breaking down, aggregation and pulverization during cycles and the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles are loosely attached to CNTs [16,17]. In addition to  $\text{SnO}_2$ , titanium dioxide ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ) is also considered as one of the most-studied anode materials, owing to its long cycle life, better safety, higher structural stability, low cost and environmentally benign [18]. Despite the above inherent beneficial characteristics, there are still obstacles that hinder the further development of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based anode materials for LIBs, especially the relatively low electronic conductivities and low practical capacity (ca. 170  $\text{mAh g}^{-1}$ ) [19].

Recently, efforts for combining  $\text{SnO}_2$  and other electrochemically active metal oxides to obtain a composite with excellent electrochemical performance have been reported, that owing to the synergistic effects between the  $\text{SnO}_2$  and other oxides [1,20,21]. For example,  $\text{SnO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$  nano-heterostructures have been recently suggested to overcome the demerits of both materials, and to improve the electrode performance [22].  $\text{TiO}_2$  with neglectable volume change (3–4%), encapsulating  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs can be used as the stable barrier to effectively maintain the mechanical integrity of  $\text{SnO}_2$  during the reaction with lithium ions. At the same time, the low specific capacity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  can be compensated by the high capacity of  $\text{SnO}_2$ . Moreover, a nanotubular hollow type is more suitable for accommodating volume expansion and thus enabling better cycle performance than the nanoparticle type [23]. Herein, the hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires can not only facilitate the lithium transport, but also work as a mechanical support which can effectively buffer the volume change of tin (Sn) and prevent the tin crystals from agglomerating during cycling. Finally, a composite with excellent electrochemical performance could be obtained, owing to the synergistic effects between the  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ .

In this study, hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires encapsulating  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles (NPs) was fabricated by template-assisted hydrolysis and condensation of tetrabutyl titanate (TBOT), and subsequent calcination in air. The  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs/carbon (C) nanowires (NWs) were used as templates and prepared with pyrrole *in situ* polymerization coating  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs in aqueous solution, followed by a carbonized transformation process. To our knowledge, this is the first report on fabricating this unique structure with hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires shell encapsulating  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs, which intrinsically possess void space in between the  $\text{TiO}_2$  shell and  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs cores. The  $\text{TiO}_2$  shell of  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite can alleviate the pulverization and drastic volume change of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs and maintain the structural integrity. The void space can also accommodate the volume expansion of  $\text{SnO}_2$  and provide highly efficient channels for the fast transport of both electrons and lithium ion during discharge/charge cycling process. The designed hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires shell encapsulating  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs architecture exhibits good lithium storage performance and excellent cyclability.

## 2. Experimental section

### 2.1. Preparation of samples

#### 2.1.1. Preparation of $\text{SnO}_2$ NPs

$\text{SnO}_2$  NPs were synthesized by a modified approach that was similar to reference [10]. Briefly, 0.213 g tin dichloride dehydrate (AR, Aldrich) was added to 60 mL mixed solvent of distilled water and ethanol with the volume ratio being 1:1. After stirred for 30 min, followed by the addition of 1.68 g ammonium hydroxide (25–28 wt%). This suspension was transferred into a 100 mL teflon-line stainless autoclave after stirred for 10 min, and then placed in an oven at 120 °C for 6 h. The autoclave used an ice–water bath to rapid cooling after the reaction finished. The products were collected by centrifugation and washed with distilled water and ethanol thoroughly, and then dried in a vacuum oven at 60 °C overnight, followed by calcination in a Muffle furnace at 400 °C for 3 h under air at a ramping rate of 0.5 °C min<sup>−1</sup>, the  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs were obtained.

#### 2.1.2. Preparation of $\text{SnO}_2$ NPs/C nanowires

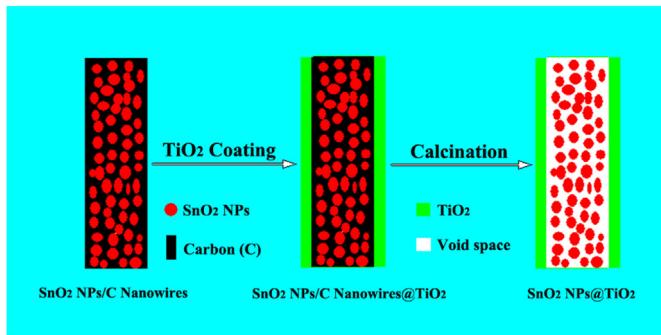
100 mg as-prepared  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs were dispersed in 100 mL distilled water containing 60 mg cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB). After sonication for 30 min, 200  $\mu\text{L}$  of pyrrole (99.7%, Aldrich) was added into above suspension, followed by stirred for 1 h. And then 20 mL 0.26 M ammonium persulfate aqueous solution was slowly dropped into above solution. The polymerization process was kept under stirring for 4 h at room temperature. After polymerization process finished, the black products were collected by centrifugation and washed with distilled water and ethanol thoroughly, and then dried in a vacuum oven at 60 °C overnight, followed by a carbonization in a tube furnace at 500 °C for 3 h under Ar at a ramping rate of 0.5 °C min<sup>−1</sup>, the  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs/C NWs were obtained.

#### 2.1.3. Preparation of hollow $\text{TiO}_2$ nanowires encapsulated $\text{SnO}_2$ nanoparticles ( $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ )

A typical preparation process was as follows: 100 mg as-prepared  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs/C NWs were dispersed in absolute ethanol (134 mL), and mixed with concentrated ammonia solution (0.6 mL, 25–28 wt%) under ultrasound for 10 min. Afterward, 1.0 mL of TBOT was added dropwise in 5 min, and the reaction was allowed to proceed for ca. 3 h at 45 °C under continuous mechanical stirring. The resultant products ( $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs/C NWs@ $\text{TiO}_2$ ) were collected by centrifugation and washed with distilled water and ethanol thoroughly, and then dried in a vacuum oven at 60 °C overnight, followed by calcination in a Muffle furnace at 400 °C for 2 h under air at a ramping rate of 0.5 °C min<sup>−1</sup>. Finally, the white  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  was obtained.

### 2.2. Structure and electrochemical characterization

The morphology and microstructure of the products were obtained using field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, JEOL JSM-7401F), high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM, JEOL JEM-2010) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL JEM-2010) with an energy dispersive X-ray spectrometer (EDX) and a selected area electron diffraction pattern (SAED). The composition and crystal structure were characterized by X-ray diffraction measurement (XRD, Rigaku, D/max-Rbusing Cu K $\alpha$  radiation). Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) of the as-prepared  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  was carried out with a thermogravimetric analysis instrument (TGA, SDT Q600 V8.2 Build 100). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) experiments were carried out on an AXIS ULTRA



**Fig. 1.** Schematic illustration of the fabrication process of  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite.

DLD instrument, using aluminum  $\text{K}\alpha$  X-ray radiation during XPS analysis.

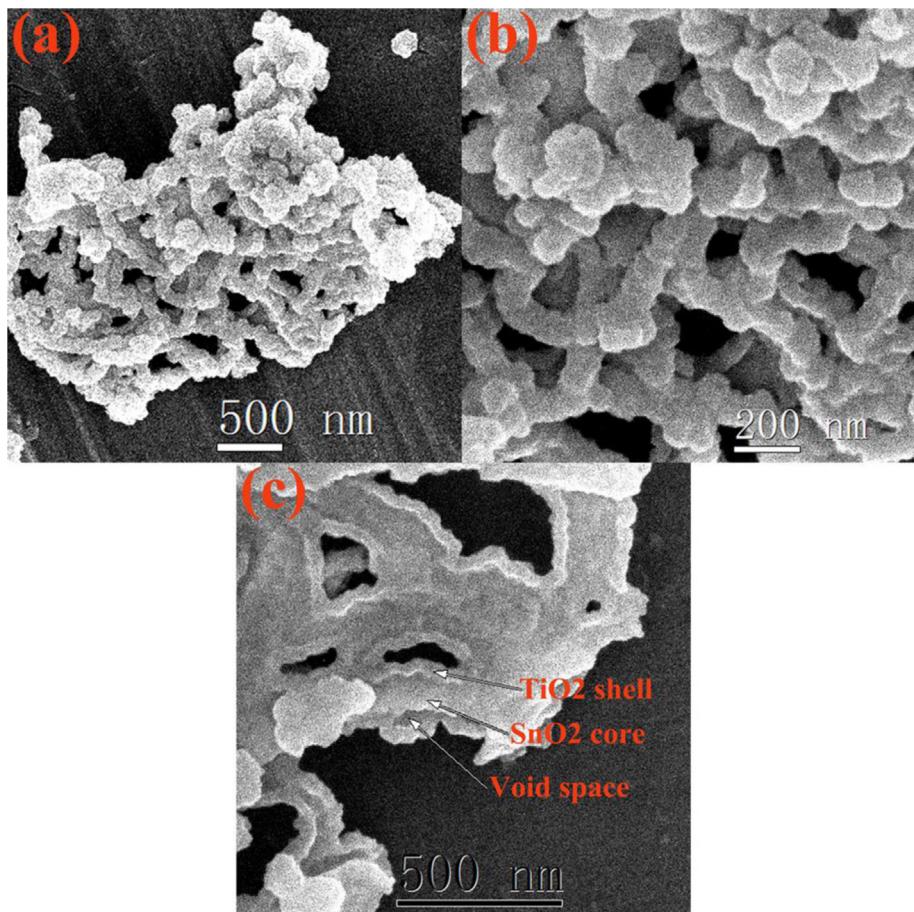
Electrochemical measurements were performed using 2016-type coin cells assembled in an argon-filled glove box (German, M. Braun Co.,  $[\text{O}_2] < 1 \text{ ppm}$ ,  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}] < 1 \text{ ppm}$ ). The working electrodes were composed of the active material ( $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ ), conductive material (acetylene black, AB), and binder (poly-vinyl-difluoride, PVDF) in a weight ratio of  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2/\text{AB}/\text{PVDF} = 80:10:10$  and pasted on Cu foil. Pure lithium foil was used as the counter electrode. A glass fiber (GF/A) from Whatman was used as the separator. The electrolyte consisted of a solution of 1 M  $\text{LiPF}_6$  in ethylene carbonate and dimethyl carbonate (EC + DMC) (1:1 in volume). The galvanostatic discharge/charge cycles were

carried out on a CT2001a cell test instrument (LAND Electronic Co.) over a voltage range of 0.01–3.00 V at room temperature. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) was implemented on a CHI660D electrochemical workstation. For  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite working electrode, all the specific capacities reported and current densities used were based on the total weight of  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite.

### 3. Results and discussion

The fabrication of  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite was schematically illustrated in Fig. 1. The templates of  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs/C nanowires (NWs) first synthesized by pyrrole *in situ* polymerization coating  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs in aqueous solution, followed by a carbonized transformation process. The as-prepared  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs/C NWs had curved wires-like shape with a diameter distribution of ca. 200 nm (Fig. S1c). The  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs distributed in carbon NWs had a size distribution of ca. 15 nm (Fig. S1a, b). After the  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs/C NWs were coated by  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and subsequent removal of the carbon by calcination in air, the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite was obtained. The templates were effectively removed by calcination and the thermogravimetric (TG) (Fig. S1d) analysis of  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite indicated that only ca. 3.5% weight loss was observed (mainly due to the evaporation of the weakly adsorbed water and trace carbon) and no observation of distinct regions of weight loss of carbon between 200 and 600 °C (this region of weight loss is mainly due to removal of carbon [24]).

We observed the morphological, structural, and compositional characterizations of the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite by SEM, TEM and XRD. As can be seen from Fig. 2a, b that  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite



**Fig. 2.** FSEM images of  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite: (a) SEM image, (b) magnified SEM image and (c) SEM image of broken or incomplete  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite.

maintained the 1D nanostructure after the removal of carbon by  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs/C NWs@ $\text{TiO}_2$  composite calcination in air, and further confirmed by the TEM shown in Fig. 3a. Interestingly, the removal of carbon layer close contact to  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer, leading to the formation of void space between the core and shell (Fig. 3b), and fabricating the unique architecture with hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires shell encapsulating  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs cores. This phenomenon suggests that the carbon layer which directly contact to  $\text{TiO}_2$  coating layer contains less  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs contents than inner carbon, and more space left than inner region when carbon removed. TEM observation (Fig. 3b, c) clearly indicates that the 1D nanostructure possess a unique yolk-shell structure, where  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs encapsulated in hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires shell (Fig. 3c). It is clearly seen from Fig. 3c that this composite possesses a compact shell (dark-colored) and a loose core (relatively bright-colored). The mean thickness of the shell is estimated to be around ca. 25 nm. Furthermore, the hollow nanowires shelled structure is also verified from the broken or incomplete  $\text{SnO}_2$ @ $\text{TiO}_2$  composite (Fig. 2c). It shows that the distinct void space exists between the core and shell, and with a size of ca. 30 nm (indicated by white arrows in Fig. 2c). HRTEM image (Fig. 3d) of the part indicated by a square in Fig. 3c clearly shows that the visible set of lattice fringes with d-spacing of 0.26 and 0.23 nm are the characteristic of (101) and (004) lattice planes of the rutile  $\text{SnO}_2$  and anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  structure, respectively. As observed from Fig. 3c, d that the  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  located in the core region and shell region of the  $\text{SnO}_2$ @ $\text{TiO}_2$  composite, respectively. In addition, selected-area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns were recorded by focusing the electron beam on an area indicated by a square in Fig. 3c,

indicating the polycrystalline nature (inset of Fig. 3c). It is consistent with the polycrystalline nature of rutile  $\text{SnO}_2$  and anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$ .

Fig. 4a reveals chemical in formation on the as-prepared  $\text{SnO}_2$ @ $\text{TiO}_2$  composite via energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectra. These composite mainly include the elements Ti, O, and Sn, except for trace C and Cu come from micro-grid used as the sample stage in TEM measurements. And the Ti, O, Sn content estimated from EDX analysis is found to be 13.84, 15.97, 29.40 and 11.06, 38.20, 9.48 by weight (%) and atomic (%), respectively (top of Fig. 4a). The results are consistent with chemical in formation of  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Thus, the  $\text{SnO}_2$ @ $\text{TiO}_2$  composite contains about 61.80 (wt%) of  $\text{SnO}_2$  and 38.2 (wt%) of  $\text{TiO}_2$  according to the EDX analysis. The crystallographic structure of the  $\text{SnO}_2$ @ $\text{TiO}_2$  composite was further characterized by using X-ray diffraction (XRD) shown in Fig. 4b. It is clear from the pattern of  $\text{SnO}_2$ @ $\text{TiO}_2$  that all intensive peaks can be well indexed to anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  marked by squares (■) (JCPDS card no. 21-1272, S.G.:  $I4_1/\text{amd}$ ,  $a_0 = 3.7852 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $c_0 = 9.5139 \text{ \AA}$ ) and rutile  $\text{SnO}_2$  marked by circles (●) (JCPDS card no. 41-1445, S.G.:  $P4_2/\text{mnm}$ ,  $a_0 = 4.738 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $c_0 = 3.187 \text{ \AA}$ ), respectively [25,26]. It is in good agreement with the TEM and SAED results.

A typical XPS spectrum for the  $\text{SnO}_2$ @ $\text{TiO}_2$  composite is shown in Fig. 5a. Obvious Ti 2p, Sn 3d and O 1s are detected, and their high-resolution spectra are shown in Fig. 5b–d, respectively. The O 1s spectrum (Fig. 5b) for  $\text{SnO}_2$ @ $\text{TiO}_2$  composite comprises two peaks with binding energies (BEs) of 530.3 eV and 531 eV, which are well attributable to  $\text{O}^{2-}$  in  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{SnO}_2$ , respectively [27,28]. The high-resolution spectrum of Ti 2p shows the binding energies for Ti 2p<sub>3/2</sub> at 458.8 eV and Ti 2p<sub>1/2</sub> at 464.6 eV (Fig. 5c) which are

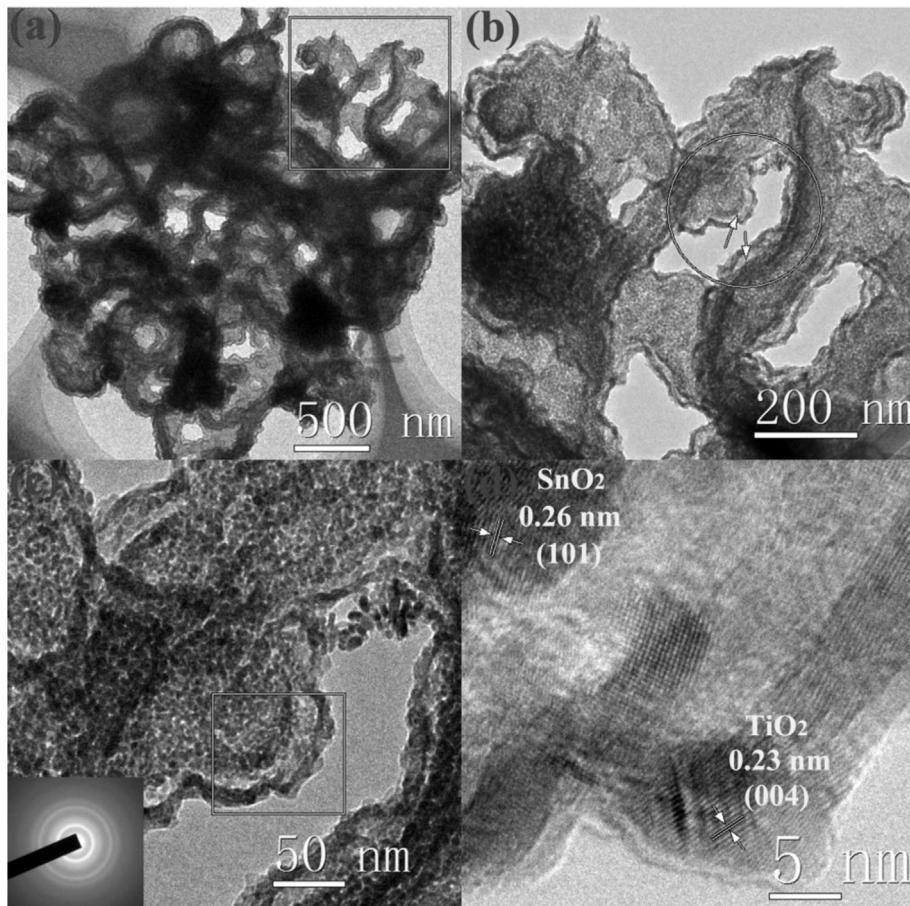


Fig. 3. TEM images of  $\text{SnO}_2$ @ $\text{TiO}_2$  composite: (a) TEM image, (b) magnified TEM image of the part indicated by a square in (a), (c) magnified TEM image of the part indicated by a circle in (b) and SAED pattern (inset), (d) HRTEM image of the part indicated by a square in (c).

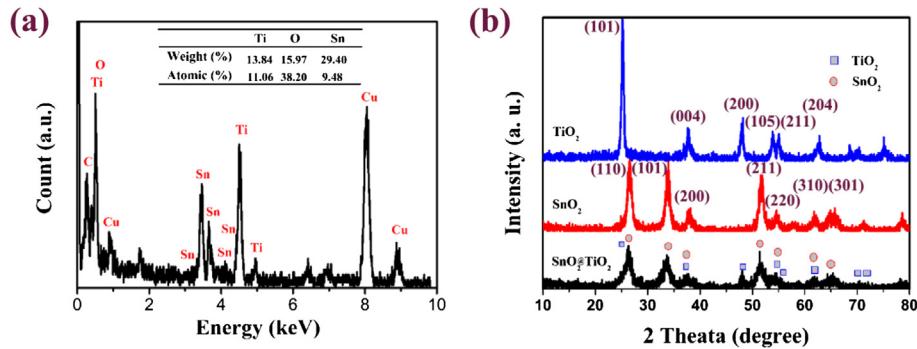


Fig. 4. EDX spectrum and XRD pattern of  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite: (a) EDX spectrum, (b) XRD pattern.

assigned to  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  in  $\text{TiO}_2$  [27]. Fig. 5d shows the high-resolution spectrum of Sn 3d, the binding energies of Sn 3d<sub>5/2</sub> and Sn 3d<sub>3/2</sub> are centered at 486.7 eV and 495.1 eV which are assigned to  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  in  $\text{SnO}_2$  [29]. The analysis results from XPS further confirm that we have successfully fabricated a unique architecture consists of hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires shell and  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs cores ( $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ ).

Fig. 6a shows the initial five CV curves of the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite at a scan of  $0.5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  from 0.0 to 3.0 V. Two pair of redox peaks (cathodic, anodic) can be clearly observed. The first dominant pair shown at the potential (V) of (0.008, 0.65) can be attributed to the alloying (cathodic scan) and dealloying (anodic scan) process. In addition, the first pair is much more pronounced than the subsequent second pair, making its major contribution to the total capacity of the electrode. The second pair locating at (0.70, 1.56), and is believed to be related to the irreversible reduction of  $\text{SnO}_2$  to Sn and the formation of a solid electrolyte interface (SEI) layer. This

reduction peak locating at 0.70 V shows a significantly drop in current after the first cycle correspond to the conversion reaction only. The charge–discharge voltage profiles of the as-prepared  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  for the 1st, 2nd, 5th, 10th and 20th cycles shown in Fig. 6b. In agreement with the above CV behavior, two slope regions can be identified in the discharge process of the first cycle. Additionally, another small pair of redox peak at (1.75, 2.1) may possibly be ascribed to the lithium ion insertion into/extraction out of  $\text{TiO}_2$  [1]. Therefore,  $\text{TiO}_2$  not only does the supporting function in the composite alleviates the pulverization and drastic volume change of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs, but also contributes to the total capacity of the composite. Fig. 6b shows the charge-discharge voltage profiles of the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite measured at a current density of  $800 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ , delivering a discharge and charge capacities of 1174 and  $549 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  (throughout this work, the specific capacity of the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite calculated based on its total mass),

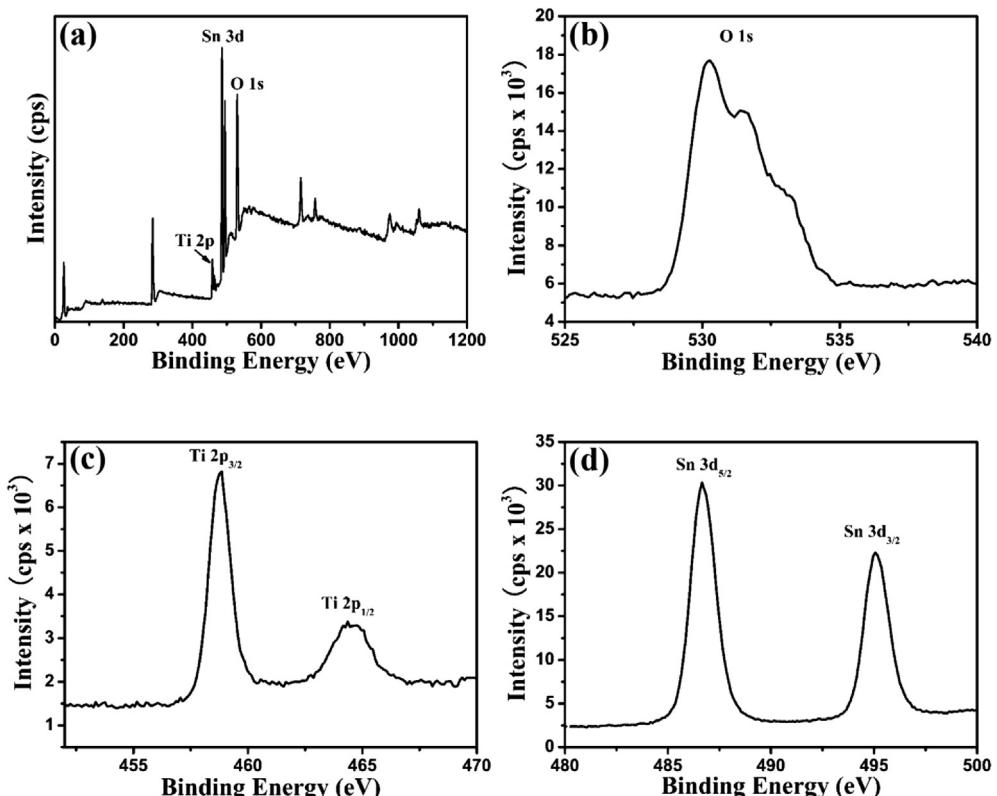
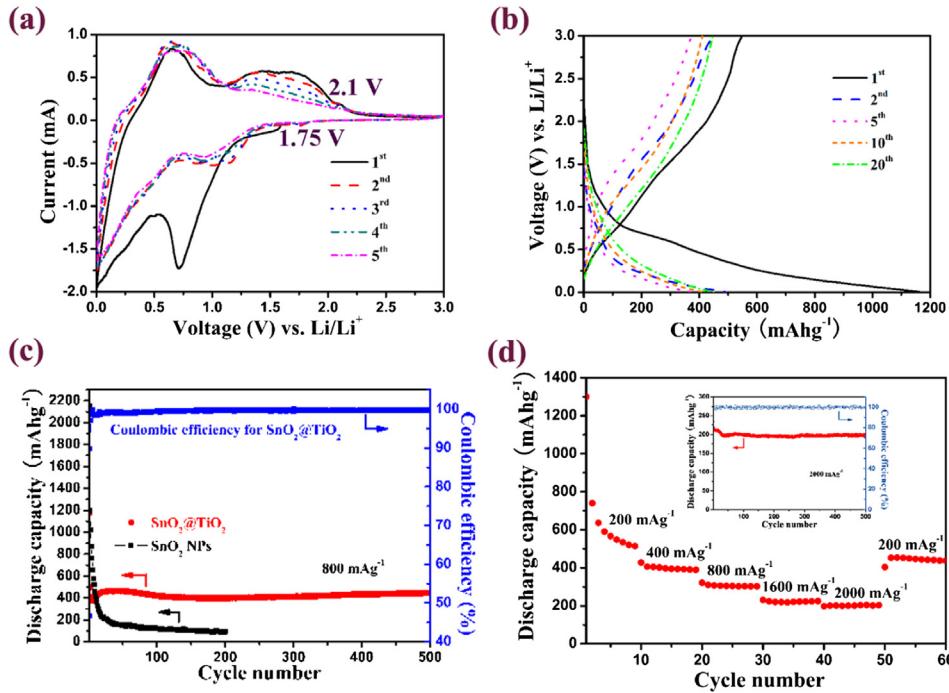


Fig. 5. XPS spectra for  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite: (a) survey spectrum and high-resolution (b) O 1s, (c) Ti 2p, and (d) Sn 3d spectra.



**Fig. 6.** Electrochemical characterizations of the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite: (a) representative CVs at a scan rate of  $0.5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  between  $0.0 \text{ V}$  and  $3.0 \text{ V}$ ; (b) charge/discharge voltage profiles at  $800 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  between  $0.01 \text{ V}$  and  $3.0 \text{ V}$ ; (c) comparative cycling performance between  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite and  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs at  $800 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  between  $0.01 \text{ V}$  and  $3.0 \text{ V}$ ; (d) rate capabilities of the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite and cycling performance at  $2000 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  after rate test (inset).

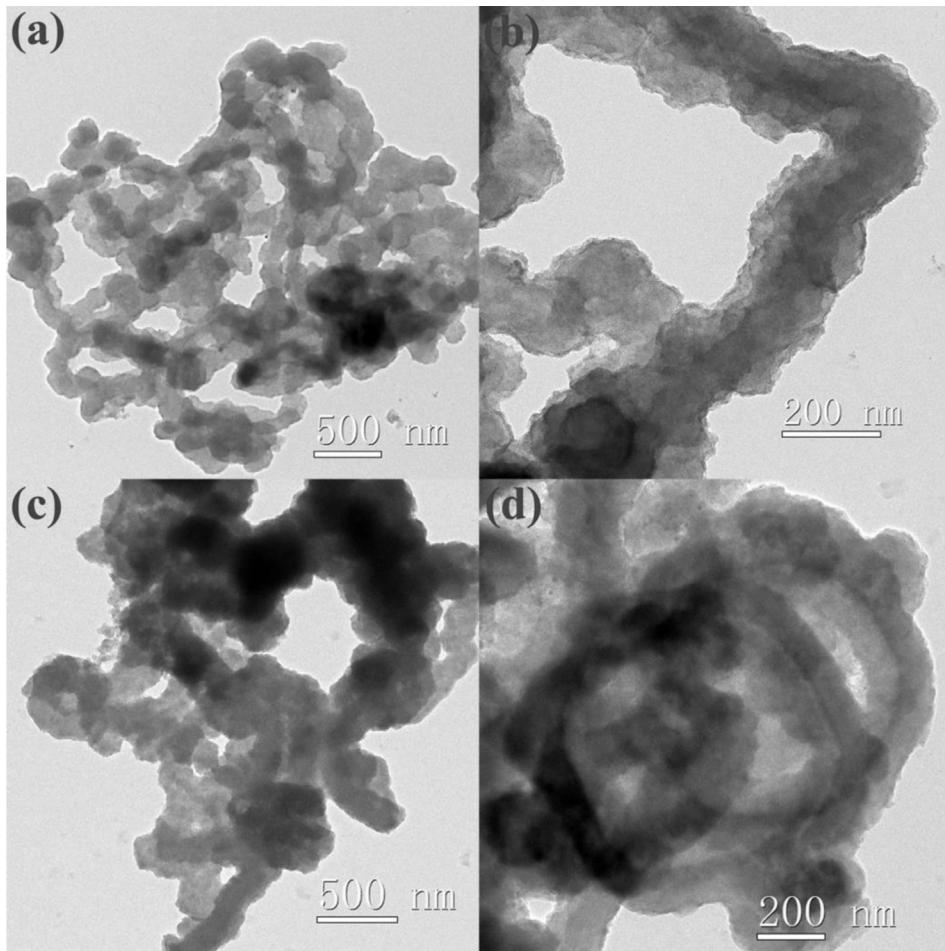
respectively, and giving rise to a Coulombic efficiency of 46.8%. Compared to  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs (the first discharge and charge capacities are  $2156$  and  $1124 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ , respectively, shown in Fig. 6c), the lower Coulombic efficiency and first discharge and charge capacities of  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  are mainly attributable to the lower theoretical capacity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and the formation of  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$  and a thick SEI layer on the electrode [30]. The discharge and charge capacities in the second cycle are  $495$ ,  $445 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ , respectively, resulting in an increased efficiency value of 89.8%. Moreover, the efficiency further increases up to 99.1% in the 24th cycle and still maintains at around 99.1% in the following cycles shown in Fig. 6e. It is worth noting that the discharge curves in the following cycles almost overlapped with the first one, showing a good cycling performance of the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite.

Fig. 6c shows the comparison of cycling performance between  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite and  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs between  $0.01$  and  $3.0 \text{ V}$  at a current density of  $800 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ . In Fig. 6c, the  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs with fast capacity fading can be observed during discharge/charge cycles, ascribe to their aggregation and pulverization [16]. In sharp contrast, the as-prepared  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite exhibits significantly improved cycling performance (Fig. 6c). More importantly, it retains a reversible discharge capacity of  $445 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  even after 500 cycles, and with a Coulombic efficiency of 99.7% clearly shown in Fig. 6c. Unfortunately, for the  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs, only  $95 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  is retained after 500 cycles at the same current density (Fig. 6c). Moreover, the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite also shows the much better cycling performance and higher lithium storage compared to the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  double-shell nanotubes ( $300 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  after 50 cycles at  $800 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ ) [22]. Obviously, these capacities are higher than the values observed in  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs and reported practical capacity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  ( $150$ – $170 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ ) [31,32]. We suggest that the high capacity of  $\text{SnO}_2$  and the superior cycling performance of  $\text{TiO}_2$  are synergistically combined in the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite electrode [22]. Fig. 6d shows the rate capability of the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite electrode at various current densities from  $200$  to  $2000 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ . The specific discharge capacities of the composite are about  $520$ ,  $400$ ,  $304$ ,  $222$ ,

$204 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  when cycles at  $200$ ,  $400$ ,  $800$ ,  $1600$ ,  $2000 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ , respectively. When back to  $200 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ , a capacity of  $450 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  can be restored, indicating the good rate performance of the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite. And then, the electrode continues to discharge/charge cycling at  $2000 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  after rate test, and delivers a discharge capacity of  $201 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  after 500 cycles (inset in Fig. 6d), further indicating the excellent cycling performance of the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite.

The outstanding electrochemical performance of the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite electrode can be attributed to its unique architecture with hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires shell encapsulating  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs cores, which intrinsically possesses void space in between the  $\text{TiO}_2$  shell and  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs cores, facilitating lithium ion diffusion, providing space for the free expansion of  $\text{SnO}_2$ , and further, effective mechanical support from the  $\text{TiO}_2$  shell, alleviating the stress that is created during discharge/charge cycling, preventing the pulverization of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles and maintaining the structural integrity. The superiorities of  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite mentioned above, contributing to enhanced lithium storage performance.

To confirm the structural integrity of the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  electrode during repeated cycling, we decomposed two cells after 200 cycles and 500 cycles at a current density of  $800 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ , respectively, and the electrode was observed using TEM. Fig. 7a, b shows that the curved wires-like 1-D structure was still preserved after 200 cycles at  $800 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ , but the primary distinct void space between shell and cores became narrow and obscure due to the volume expansion of  $\text{SnO}_2$  during cycling. Furthermore, we found that the nanowire morphology was still preserved even after 500 cycles but the void space was completely lost (Fig. 7c, d). These observations confirmed that encapsulation of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles into hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires and intrinsically possession of void space in between the  $\text{TiO}_2$  shell and  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs cores were very effective for accommodating the large volume expansion of  $\text{SnO}_2$  and maintaining the structural integrity, which brought stable cyclability and good lithium storage performance.



**Fig. 7.** TEM images of  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite after different cycle number at  $800 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ : (a) TEM image and (b) magnified TEM image after 200 cycles, (c) TEM image and (d) magnified TEM image after 500 cycles.

#### 4. Conclusions

In summary, we have successfully prepared  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite, namely encapsulation of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanoparticles into hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires. The  $\text{TiO}_2$  shell of  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite, which possesses neglectable volume change (3–4%) not only alleviates the pulverization and drastic volume change of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs and maintains the structural integrity, but also contributes to the total capacity of the composite. This unique structure possesses built-in void space in between the  $\text{TiO}_2$  shell and  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs core, which not only allow for the free expansion of  $\text{SnO}_2$  without rupturing the hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires shell but also enable the formation of highly efficient channels for the fast transport of both electrons and lithium ion during discharge/charge cycling process. As a result, the as-prepared  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite delivered a reversible discharge capacity of 445 and  $200 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  after 500 cycles at a current density of 800 and  $2000 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ , respectively. Thus, the  $\text{SnO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite exhibits good lithium ion storage capacity and excellent cycling performance, which are mainly attributed to the unique architecture of hollow  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowires shell encapsulating  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs cores.

#### Acknowledgments

We are grateful for financial support from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant no. 21103108 and 21173148) and the SJTU-UM collaborative research project.

#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jpowsour.2013.12.049>.

#### References

- [1] Z.X. Yang, G.D. Du, Z.P. Guo, X.B. Yu, Z.X. Chen, T.L. Guo, R. Zeng, *Nanoscale* 3 (2011) 4440.
- [2] Z.H. Wen, G.H. Lu, S. Mao, H. Kim, S.M. Cui, K.H. Yu, X.K. Huang, P.T. Hurley, O. Mao, J.H. Chen, *Electrochim. Commun.* 29 (2013) 67.
- [3] P. Poizot, S. Laruelle, S. Grugeon, L. Dupont, J.M. Tarascon, *Nature* 407 (2000) 496.
- [4] F.Y. Cheng, J. Liang, Z.L. Tao, J. Chen, *Adv. Mater.* 23 (2011) 1695.
- [5] S.J. Han, B.C. Jang, T. Kim, S.M. Oh, T. Hyeon, *Adv. Funct. Mater.* 15 (2005) 1845.
- [6] X.W. Low, Y. Wang, C. Yuan, J.Y. Lee, L.A. Archer, *Adv. Mater.* 18 (2006) 2325.
- [7] S.J. Ding, J.S. Chen, X.W. Lou, *Chem. Asian J.* (2011) 2278–2281.
- [8] Y. Wang, M.H. Wu, Z. Jiao, J.Y. Lee, *Nanotechnology* 20 (2009) 7.
- [9] Z.Y. Wang, D.Y. Luan, Freddy Yin Chiang Boey, X.W. (David) Lou, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 133 (2011) 4738–4741.
- [10] C. Wang, G.H. Du, K. Stahl, H.X. Huang, Y.J. Zhong, J.Z. Jiang, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 116 (2012) 4000.
- [11] H.X. Zhang, C. Feng, Y.C. Zhai, K.L. Jiang, Q.Q. Li, S.S. Fan, *Adv. Mater.* 21 (2009) 2299.
- [12] L.P. Zhao, L. Gao, *Carbon* 42 (2004) 1858.
- [13] G. Chen, Z.Y. Wang, D.G. Xia, *Chem. Mater.* 20 (2008) 6951.
- [14] J. Zhu, D.N. Lei, G.H. Zhang, Q.H. Li, B.G. Lu, T.H. Wang, *Nanoscale* 5 (2013) 5499.
- [15] C.H. Xu, J. Sun, L. Gao, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 113 (2009) 20509.
- [16] P. Wu, N. Du, H. Zhang, J.X. Yu, D.R. Yang, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 114 (2010) 22535–22538.
- [17] Z.H. Wen, Q. Wang, Q. Zhang, J.H. Li, *Adv. Funct. Mater.* 17 (2007) 2772.
- [18] L. Shen, X. Zhang, H. Li, Y. Zhao, F. Bijarbooneh, V. Malgras, Y. Lee, Y.M. Kang, S.X. Dou, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 133 (2011) 19314–19317.

- [19] H.L. Jiang, X.L. Yang, C. Chen, Y.H. Zhu, C.Z. Li, *New J. Chem.* 37 (2013) 1578.
- [20] W.W. Zhou, Y.Y. Tay, X.T. Jia, D.Y.Y. Wai, J. Jiang, H.H. Hoon, T. Yu, *Nanoscale* 4 (2012) 4459.
- [21] C. Li, W. Wei, S. Fang, H. Wang, Y. Zhang, Y. Cui, R. Chen, *J. Power Sources* 195 (2010) 2939.
- [22] J.H. Jeun, K.Y. Park, D.H. Kim, W.S. Kim, H.C. Kim, B.S. Lee, H. Kim, W.R. Yu, K. Kang, S.H. Hong, *Nanoscale* 5 (2013) 8480.
- [23] J. Ye, H. Zhang, R. Yang, X. Li, L. Qi, *Small* 6 (2010) 296.
- [24] J.S. Chen, Y.L. Cheah, Y.T. Chen, N. Layaprakash, S. Madhavi, H.Y. Yang, X.W. Lou, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 113 (2009) 20504.
- [25] J.S. Chen, Y.L. Tan, C.M. Li, Y.L. Cheah, D.Y. Luan, S. Madhavi, F.Y.C. Boey, L.A. Archer, X.W. Lou, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 132 (2010) 6124.
- [26] S.J. Ding, J.S. Chen, G.G. Qi, X.N. Duan, Z.Y. Wang, E.P. Giannelis, L.A. Archer, X.W. Lou, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 133 (2011) 21.
- [27] Y. Qiao, X.L. Hu, Y. Liu, C.J. Chen, H.H. Xu, D.F. Hou, P. Hu, Y.H. Huang, *J. Mater. Chem. A* 1 (2013) 10378.
- [28] Y.M. Li, X.J. Lv, J. Lu, J.H. Li, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 114 (2010) 21771.
- [29] M.M. Liu, X.W. Li, H. Ming, J. Adkins, X.W. Zhao, L.L. Su, Q. Zhou, J.W. Zheng, *New J. Chem.* 37 (2013) 2098.
- [30] X.W. Lou, C.M. Li, L.A. Archer, *Adv. Mater.* 21 (2009) 2536–2539.
- [31] D. Deng, M.G. Kim, J.Y. Lee, J. Cho, *Energy Environ. Sci.* 2 (2009) 818.
- [32] Y.S. Hu, L. Kienie, Y.G. Guo, J. Maier, *Adv. Mater.* 18 (2006) 1421.